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Estimating the cost of community interventions to reduce child mortality in South Africa using the Lives Saved Tool (LiST)

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Abstract

Objective To estimate the costs of scaling up interventions that can be undertaken at community level and to estimate the overall impact that the interventions can have on reducing child mortality.

Setting In this study we used the Lives Saved Tool (LiST), a module in the spectrum software. Within the spectrum software, LiST interacts with other modules, the AIDS Impact Module (AIM), Family Planning Module (FamPlan) and Demography Projections Module (Dem Proj), to model the impact of more than 60 interventions that affect cause-specific mortality.

Participants Demography Projections Module Based on National South African Data

Interventions A total of 9 interventions namely; Breastfeeding promotion, Complimentary feeding, Vitamin supplementation, Hand washing with soap, Hygienic disposal of children's stools, Oral rehydration solution, Oral antibiotics for the treatment of pneumonia, Therapeutic feeding for wasting, and Treatment for moderate malnutrition.

Primary and secondary outcome measures Reducing child mortality

Results A total of 9 interventions can prevent 8, 891 deaths by 2030. Hand washing with soap (21%) accounts for the highest number of deaths prevented, followed by therapeutic feeding (19%) and oral rehydration therapy (16%). The top 5 interventions account for 77% of all deaths prevented. At scale, an estimated cost of R2.2 billion (R41 per capita) per year will be required in community health worker costs.

Conclusion The use of community health workers offers enormous opportunities for saving lives. These programmes require appropriate financial investments. Findings from this study show what can be achieved if concerted effort is channelled towards the identified set of life saving interventions.

Strengths and limitations of this study

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- 43 • This analysis estimates both the cost and impact of interventions delivered at community
- 44 level to prevent child mortality
- 45 • This study aids priority setting, it identifies the top 5 interventions out of the 9 that account
- 46 for 82% of all additional deaths prevented
- 47 • The 9 interventions are included in the model as stand-alone interventions and they are not
- 48 included as the package of interventions

50 **Background**

51
52 Thousands of children die every year in South Africa from preventable causes, mainly diarrhoea and
53 pneumonia [1,2]. Progress has been made in the last decade, with child and infant mortality
54 reducing significantly between 2009 and 2012 [3]. This progress has occurred at a time during which
55 there has been rapid scale up of prevention of mother to child transmission (PMTCT) of HIV and
56 improvement in the coverage of other essential child health interventions including immunisations
57 and increased access to water and sanitation. However, this has not been sufficient to reach the
58 country’s millennium development goals of reducing infant and under-five mortality rates by two
59 thirds by 2015.

60
61 As the country looks to a new set of sustainable development goals beyond 2015, there is need to
62 focus on essential interventions that have been shown to be effective in improving child health.
63 Recent analyses in South Africa identified a set of priority interventions that can have an impact on
64 stillbirths [4], maternal, newborn and child mortality [5]. Interventions such as family planning can
65 avert more than 7,000 newborn and child lives, at a cost of US\$7 per year per user of family planning
66 [6]. Investing an additional US\$9 to US\$18 per capita in 13 interventions to prevent diarrhoea can
67 save more than 3,000 additional child lives every year [7]. Scaling up these essential maternal and
68 child health interventions will require concerted effort and a strengthening of the health system, a
69 process which has already been initiated by the government.

70

71 In 2011, South Africa initiated its primary healthcare (PHC) reengineering programme in a bid to
72 improve health systems performance and access to health. PHC re-engineering is aimed at
73 positioning PHC as the mainstay of the health sector in responding to the quadruple burden of
74 disease (HIV/TB; maternal and child health; non-communicable burden of disease; and violence and
75 injury). South Africa's approach to PHC reengineering relies heavily on PHC outreach teams which
76 include professional nurses, health promotion practitioners and community health workers (CHWs).

77

78 Global evidence has shown that CHWs can effectively deliver interventions in primary health care
79 including nutrition, maternal and child health, malaria control, tuberculosis (TB) control, HIV/AIDS
80 prevention and control, mental health and non-communicable disease [8-13]. A Cochrane review of
81 CHW interventions identified 107 randomised controlled trials which showed promising benefits,
82 compared to usual facility care in increasing immunisation uptake in children, improving
83 breastfeeding rates until six months, reducing neonatal mortality and improving pulmonary TB care
84 rates [14]. The review also reported that CHWs interventions reduce child morbidity and mortality;
85 maternal mortality; and increase the likelihood of caregivers seeking care for children who are ill.

86

87 There is a small but growing evidence base of cost effectiveness studies of CHW interventions in low
88 and middle income countries [15-17]. More recently there is evidence of the cost-effectiveness of
89 CHW interventions in reducing malaria and asthma [16,17], mortality of neonates and children
90 [16,17], malnutrition [16,17], improving maternal health [17], and increasing exclusive breastfeeding
91 [17-19], increasing uptake of home based HIV testing [20] and improving children's physical health
92 and psychomotor development [17]. However, there is still a need to provide more information on
93 the cost and impact of community health worker interventions, in order to aid priority setting and
94 decision making for the improvement of child health.

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96 In this paper, we use the Lives Saved Tool (LiST), a widely used priority setting tool, to estimate the
97 costs of scaling up interventions that can be undertaken at community level [21]. The paper
98 describes the methods used in LiST to estimate the cost of deploying community health workers and
99 the overall impact that interventions can have on reducing child mortality. This information is
100 necessary for South Africa, as it pursues the goal of Universal Health Care.

101

102 **Methods**

103 This analysis used the Lives Saved Tool (LiST), a module in the Spectrum software, which models the
104 impact of increased coverage of health interventions on maternal, newborn and child mortality [21].
105 Within the Spectrum software, LiST interacts with other modules, the AIDS Impact Module (AIM),
106 Family Planning Module (FamPlan) and Demography Projections Module (DemProj), to model the
107 impact of more than 60 interventions that affect cause-specific mortality [22]. LiST is a deterministic
108 mathematical model that compares the effect of various interventions on population level risk
109 factors, as well as stillbirths and maternal, newborn and child deaths [21,23]. The primary model
110 inputs are coverage of interventions and the outputs are changes in risk factors (such as stunting
111 rates) and cause specific mortality. Interventions included in the model can have an impact on single
112 or multiple causes of death and risk factors, with outcomes changing based on the level of
113 intervention coverage. Increasing the level of coverage of one or more interventions can thus lead to
114 a reduction in associated risk factors or cause-specific mortality.

115

116 Intervention impact on mortality can be direct or indirect (through the reduction of risk factors). The
117 direct impact of each of these interventions is modelled by multiplying its effectiveness estimate
118 with the level of coverage, assuming all other interventions are kept constant. For example, an
119 intervention with an effect estimate of 30% can avert 30% of the associated cause-specific deaths if
120 coverage for that intervention is 100%.

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3 122 The modelling methods used in LiST have been widely reviewed [24,25]. In South Africa, LiST has
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5 123 been used to identify the potential cost and impact of scaling up interventions on stillbirths [4],
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7 124 diarrhoea [26] and maternal, newborn and child mortality [5,27]. In our model, we use LiST to model
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9 125 the impact of interventions to reduce child mortality and then estimate the resources required for
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11 126 the portion of interventions that are delivered at community level [28]. All interventions are scaled
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14 127 up from their baseline levels (2015) to full coverage at 99% (2030).
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18 129 Nine interventions (described in Table 1) that can be delivered both at community and facility level,
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20 130 and have been shown to effectively impact child mortality are used in the model (Table 2). The
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22 131 baseline mortality rates used were 41 deaths per 1,000 live births for under-five children and
23
24 132 13/1,000 for neonates [29]. The causes of newborn and child mortality [30] are given in Figure 1.
25
26 133 Table 2 also shows the percent delivery of each intervention at different levels in the base and target
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28 134 years. Taking promotion of breastfeeding for example, the table shows that in the base year, the
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30 135 coverage of this intervention is 25% and will be scaled up to 99% in the target year 2030. In the base
31
32 136 year, breastfeeding promotion is delivered 50% at community level and 25% each at outreach and
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34 137 clinic levels. Setting the percent delivery is essential to determining the resource requirements at the
35
36 138 different levels. It is also important to note that LiST models the overall impact of each intervention,
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38 139 and intervention impact does not take into consideration the model of delivery (whether delivered
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40 140 at community or facility level).
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46 47 142 **Estimation of costs and resource requirements**

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49 143 Costs were modelled from a provider perspective, using the costing module in LiST. The module uses
50
51 144 an ingredients approach to costing, based on four components: personnel and labour; drugs and
52
53 145 supplies; other recurrent costs; and capital costs. In the analysis for costs of community health
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55 146 workers, the items included are personnel and labour and drugs and supplies. Staff remuneration is
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57 147 based on current salary structures of health workers in South Africa, with an allowance made for
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148 annual cost of living adjustments at 5.6% per annum [31]. The unit costs of drugs and supplies are
149 based on international drug prices from UNICEF and the Management for Sciences Health
150 International Drug Price Indicator [32,33].

151

152 The primary personnel input in LiST are staff time, which is then converted to annual staff costs.
153 Thus, LiST cannot for example calculate the number of personnel required for a particular
154 intervention, but can be used to estimate the effort required to scale up an intervention (in terms of
155 staff time).

156

157 Costs were estimated in South African Rand (ZAR) and converted to United States Dollars (US\$), at
158 an average exchange rate of US\$1 to ZAR11 in 2014.

159

160 **Results**

161 **Overall intervention impact on child mortality**

162 Table 3 provides the estimated number of deaths at baseline in 2015 and after full scale in 2030. The
163 number of deaths reduces from approximately 40,000 in 2015 to 30,000 in 2030. There are a total of
164 8,322 deaths prevented in 2030 by the 9 interventions scaled up in this analysis (Table 4). Hand
165 washing with soap (22%) accounts for the highest number of deaths prevented, followed by
166 therapeutic feeding (21%) and ORS (17%). The top 5 interventions account for 82% of all deaths
167 prevented.

168

169 **Estimations of resource requirements**

170 The total costs of all the interventions used in the analysis (including costs of all delivery channels i.e.
171 community, outreach and health facility) are estimated to be R964 million (R18 per capita) in 2015.
172 This is expected to rise to R7.3 billion (R136 per capita) if interventions are scaled up to 99%

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3 173 coverage in 2030. In comparison, the costs of community component are R258 million (R5 per
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5 174 capita) in 2015 and R2.2 billion in 2030. Using an annual salary of about R54, 600 per annum per
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7 175 community health worker, the required community health workforce would be about 4,700 at
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9 176 baseline and 40,300 at full coverage.
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14 178 Considering only the baseline costs at community level, hygienic disposal of stools was estimated to
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16 179 have the highest cost of labour at R73.6 million. Therapeutic feeding for wasting came in second at
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18 180 R73 million and oral rehydration solution had the third highest cost of R33 million. When
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20 181 interventions are at scale in 2030, the costs are for treatment of moderate acute malnutrition
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22 182 (R703.8 million), hand washing with soap and disposal of stools (R484 million each) and therapeutic
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24 183 feeding for wasting (R352 million).
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29 185 Approximately 3.3 million hours of work per year at the community level are required at baseline,
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31 186 compared to 11.1 million hours when interventions are fully scaled up.
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35 188 **Discussion**

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38 189 This analysis used the Lives Saved Tool (LiST), a widely used priority setting tool, to estimate the cost
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40 190 and impact of interventions delivered at community level to prevent child mortality. LiST has been
41
42 191 previously used in South Africa to identify the essential interventions that can save the lives of
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44 192 children, together with the costs of these interventions [5-7,26,27]. It has also been used in other
45
46 193 low and middle income countries to assess the cost-effectiveness of community health worker
47
48 194 programmes [15]. This current analysis shows that scaling up 9 interventions that are conducted at
49
50 195 both community and facility level can prevent an additional 8,300 lives per year. The top 5
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52 196 interventions: hand washing with soap, therapeutic feeding for wasting, ORS, oral antibiotics for
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54 197 pneumonia and appropriate complementary feeding, account for 82% of all additional deaths
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198 prevented i.e. implementing only these 5 interventions at scale can prevent an additional 6,800 child
199 deaths per year.

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201 This is an important finding as it has implications for considerations when choosing the most
202 effective interventions to meet the new sustainable development goals for child health. Considering
203 that not all interventions can be fully implemented given budgetary constraints, focusing on the
204 identified 5 most effective interventions can contribute to achieving the desired results. Other
205 considerations such as cost implications have to be made when choosing which interventions to
206 implement.

207
208 In 2011, it was estimated that there were more than 72,000 community health workers in South
209 Africa, delivering various interventions [34]. In our projection, we estimated that approximately
210 40,000 community health workers would be required to deliver the 9 interventions used in this
211 analysis at scale. This could be an underestimate, and we have no basis for comparisons with other
212 studies. Caution should be taken when considering our estimate, because it is based on a projected
213 baseline level of coverage for the modelled interventions, level of effort required to deliver the
214 interventions and an annual salary, all of which could be different in other models.

215
216 The labour costs of community health workers have been provided in this analysis. We show that at
217 scale, an estimated cost of R2.2 billion (R41 per capita) per year will be required. The top 5 most
218 effective interventions are also the most costly, probably because they are more personnel intense,
219 with a lot of time spent on extensive demonstrations. Provision of oral antibiotics for example
220 requires diagnosis, treatment and follow up. It is important to note though, that the overall cost of
221 an intervention will be influenced by among other things, the level of coverage, with more effort
222 required to scale up low coverage interventions.

223

224 The costs provided in this analysis are likely an underestimate of the true costs of deploying
225 community health workers, which have been shown to be substantial. Equipment costs have not
226 been included, nor have the usually large administrative costs also been considered. Future research
227 should look into providing the overall cost structure as this has important implications for how
228 health workers are deployed and accounted for. Future analyses should take these costs into
229 consideration, as it has been shown that they can contribute to the overall cost-effectiveness of
230 interventions [19,35].

231

232 This analysis also had a limitation in that it did not consider the interventions included as part of a
233 package of interventions that can be delivered by a single health worker. The interventions are
234 standalone. Considering a synergistic approach to providing services could be useful particularly in
235 terms of reducing costs. However, other considerations should also be made on how this would
236 work and on whether a health worker loaded with several different messages to deliver to a home
237 will be as effective as one who is focused on one specific message, e.g. breastfeeding promotion.

238

239 Further, though this analysis provided information on the cost of interventions that can be
240 undertaken at the community level, it did not in itself provide an assessment of the effectiveness of
241 using community health workers to deliver the said interventions. When analysing community
242 interventions using LiST, it is not immediately possible to isolate the impact of adding the community
243 health component on mortality outcomes. The impact of an intervention is based on its overall
244 potential to reduce a particular risk factor, not on its delivery channel (i.e. community or facility). In
245 a trial for example, it may be possible to assess the impact of delivering breastfeeding promotion
246 through community health workers or nurses at a clinic. What is possible with LiST is an assessment
247 of the resources that are required at various levels of service delivery. Thus one can estimate the
248 number of minutes required for community health interventions, the labour costs and total number
249 of services.

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251 We focused on only 9 interventions that can be delivered at community level, by maintaining
252 constant coverage of other child health interventions. This may not be very realistic since in the real
253 world, coverage of the other interventions is likely to increase, resulting in a lower burden of under-
254 five mortality by 2030. It is therefore possible that we have overestimated the total number of
255 deaths prevented.

256

257 Furthermore, the LiST model assumes that the health system interventions are delivered at
258 uniformly high quality. This is unlikely given drug shortages, health care worker attitudes and
259 institutional challenges. Significantly more resources are probably required to address such issues.

260

261 **Conclusion**

262 South Africa has made significant progress with regard to reducing child mortality although this was
263 not sufficient to meet the MDG deadline in 2015. As the new sustainable development goals
264 materialise, and South Africa heads towards Universal Health Care, understanding what the best
265 package is and how it can be delivered is essential. In order to do this, there is need to consider
266 essential and effective interventions that will have the most impact on saving the lives of South
267 African children. In this paper, we have provided information on the cost and impact of 9 effective
268 interventions that can be delivered at community level. We show that implementing just 5 of these
269 interventions can prevent as many as 6,800 additional deaths of children every year. The community
270 health worker costs of implementing the 9 interventions do not seem to be substantial, at R41 per
271 capita. This seems to be well within the scope and affordability of the South African health budget.

272

273 **Contributorship statement**

LN and KH conceived the study and participated in the design. LN and LC conducted the analysis of the analysis of the data. All authors participated in interpretation of data, drafting and critical revision of the manuscript, and approved the final version.

Competing interests

None declared

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Data sharing statement

The model data can be made available to interested researchers. No additional data available.

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Table 1: Description of interventions

Intervention	Description of the intervention
1. Breastfeeding promotion	Breastfeeding promotion can be either one-on-one or group meetings. It is assumed that children 1-5 months of age who are exclusively breast fed do not need breastfeeding promotion.
2. Complimentary feeding	This intervention only benefits children 6-24 months of age who are living on more than a dollar a day; This can be delivered in the home, community or clinic, by health professionals or health volunteers. It includes the assumption that breast feeding should be continued for children 6-24 months of age, (but does not affect breast feeding rates). The intervention includes education on the proper foods to prepare as well as appropriate hygiene for food preparation.
3. Vitamin A supplementation	This intervention covers the percent of children 6-59 months receiving full coverage with Vitamin A. Full coverage of Vitamin A supplementation is considered to be 2 doses of Vitamin A in the past year. It is assumed that all children in a country with Vitamin A deficiency are in need of Vitamin A for prevention.
4. Hand washing with soap	Appropriate hand washing is defined as washing hands with soap, ash or other materials and using adequate water, after handling faeces and before preparing food.
5. Hygienic disposal of children's stools	Percent of children's stools that are disposed of safely and contained. Stools are considered to be contained if: 1) the child always uses a toilet/latrine, 2) the faeces are thrown in the toilet or latrine, or 3) the faeces are buried in the yard.
6. Oral rehydration solution (ORS)	Percent of children with diarrhoea given ORS from sachets. This includes sachets or pre-mixed solutions of ORS.
7. Oral antibiotics for the treatment of pneumonia	Proportion of children 1-59 months with suspected pneumonia or ARI treated with antibiotics
8. Therapeutic feeding for wasting	Percent of wasted children receiving therapeutic feeding. Therapeutic feeding is outpatient treatment for severely wasted children (<-3Z) including supplementation with food (such as PlumpyNut) and maternal education. Therapeutic feeding is only applied to the percent of children severely wasted. It shifts children from the severely wasted category to moderately (-3to-2Z) and mildly (-2to-1Z) wasted categories.
9. Treatment for moderate malnutrition	Percent of moderately wasted children (-3to-2Z) receiving outpatient treatment including supplementation with food (such as PlumpyNut) and maternal education. Treatment for MAM shifts children from the moderately wasted category into the mildly wasted category (-2to-1Z).

391 Table 2: Percent intervention coverage and delivery at different levels

	Coverage		Delivery channels					
			Community		Outreach		Clinic	
Interventions	Baseline year	Target year	Baseline year	Target year	Baseline year	Target year	Baseline year	Target year
Promotion of breastfeeding	25	99	50	50	25	25	25	25
Complementary feeding--education only	10	99	50	50	0	0	50	50
Vitamin A supplementation	50	99	50	50	50	50	0	0
Hand washing with soap	17	99	100	100	0	0	0	0
Hygienic disposal of children's stools	40.5	99	100	100	0	0	0	0
ORS - oral rehydration solution	50	99	50	50	0	0	50	50
Oral antibiotics : case management of pneumonia in children	73.2	99	50	50	0	0	50	50
Therapeutic feeding - for severe wasting	45	99	20	20	0	0	80	80
Treatment for moderate acute malnutrition	10	99	20	20	0	0	80	80

393 Table 3: Total number of deaths

	2015	2030
<1 month	13356	12435
1-59 months	26857	17569
Total (0-60 months)	40214	30004

395 Table 4: Additional deaths prevented by intervention, 2030

Intervention	Number of deaths prevented	% deaths prevented
Hand washing with soap	1828	22%
Therapeutic feeding - for severe wasting	1730	21%
ORS - oral rehydration solution	1426	17%
Oral antibiotics : case management of pneumonia in children	1025	12%
Appropriate complementary feeding	822	10%
Hygienic disposal of children's stools	543	7%
Vitamin A supplementation	394	5%
Promotion of breastfeeding	319	4%
Treatment for moderate acute malnutrition	235	3%
Total	8322	100%

Table 5: Costs and resource requirements

	2015		2030	
	Total	Community	Total	Community
Intervention costs (ZAR)				
Promotion of breastfeeding	14,605,614	7,302,807	130,496,248	65,248,124
Complementary feeding (education only)	14,941,369	1,595,365	333,830,200	35,644,735
Vitamin A supplementation	7,142,477	934,263	31,126,779	3,647,176
Hand washing with soap	30,881,088	30,881,088	487,840,894	487,840,894
Hygienic disposal of children's stools	73,569,651	73,569,651	487,840,894	487,840,894
Oral rehydration solution	250,514,043	33,477,411	448,502,768	53,123,952
Oral antibiotics : case management of pneumonia in children	42,881,508	4,925,812	130,592,593	14,390,511
Therapeutic feeding - for severe wasting	366,777,062	73,080,754	1,765,928,290	351,808,218
Treatment for moderate acute malnutrition	163,145,576	32,507,045	3,533,114,183	703,867,957
Total	964,458,387	258,274,196	7,349,272,850	2,203,412,461
Personnel time (minutes)				
Community health workers		3,339,796		11,140,869

Total costs include costs of all delivery channels (community, outreach and health facility).
ZAR=South African Rand

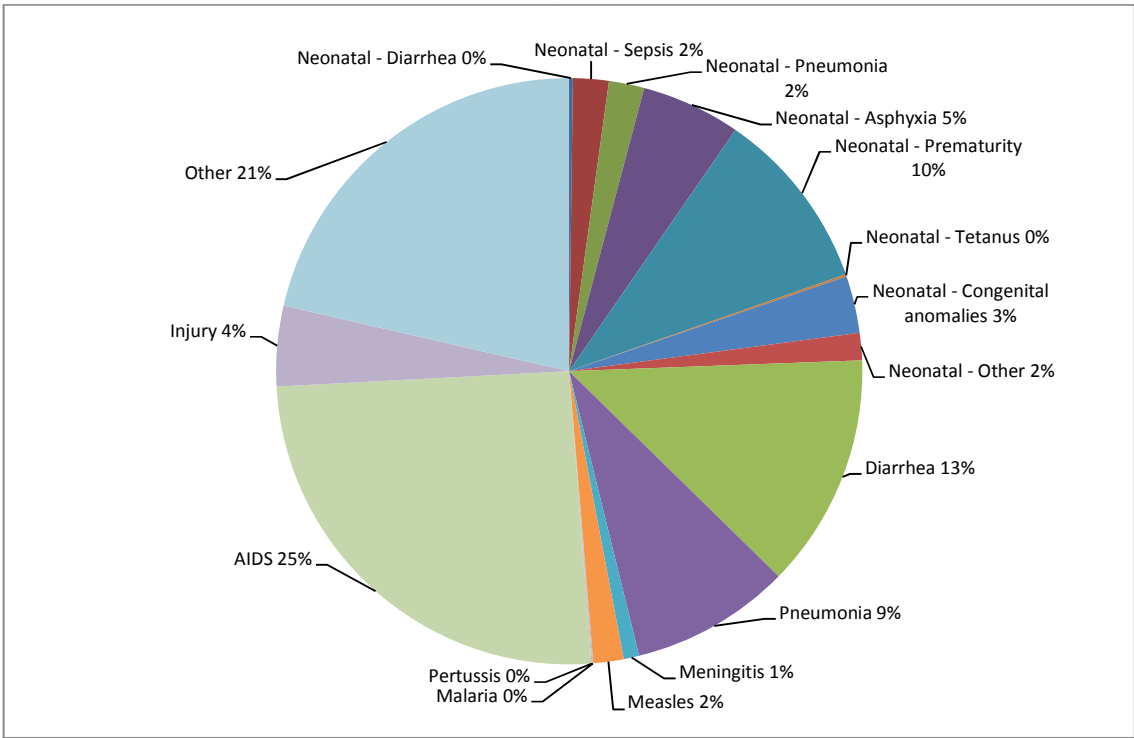


Figure 1: Causes of death in children under-five years, used in LiST (adapted from MRC, 2010).

CHEERS Checklist

Items to include when reporting economic evaluations of health interventions

The **ISPOR CHEERS Task Force Report**, *Consolidated Health Economic Evaluation Reporting Standards (CHEERS)—Explanation and Elaboration: A Report of the ISPOR Health Economic Evaluations Publication Guidelines Good Reporting Practices Task Force*, provides examples and further discussion of the 24-item CHEERS Checklist and the CHEERS Statement. It may be accessed via the *Value in Health* or via the ISPOR Health Economic Evaluation Publication Guidelines – CHEERS: Good Reporting Practices webpage: <http://www.ispor.org/TaskForces/EconomicPubGuidelines.asp>

Section/item	Item No	Recommendation	Reported on page No/line No
Title and abstract			
Title	1	Identify the study as an economic evaluation or use more specific terms such as “cost-effectiveness analysis”, and describe the interventions compared.	<u>Pg 1, line 1-2</u>
Abstract	2	Provide a structured summary of objectives, perspective, setting, methods (including study design and inputs), results (including base case and uncertainty analyses), and conclusions.	<u>Pg 2, line 21-40</u>
Introduction			
Background and objectives	3	Provide an explicit statement of the broader context for the study. Present the study question and its relevance for health policy or practice decisions.	<u>Pg 4-5, line 85-100</u>
Methods			
Target population and subgroups	4	Describe characteristics of the base case population and subgroups analysed, including why they were chosen.	<u>Pg 6, line 126-130</u>
Setting and location	5	State relevant aspects of the system(s) in which the decision(s) need(s) to be made.	<u>Pg 6, line 132-138</u>
Study perspective	6	Describe the perspective of the study and relate this to the costs being evaluated.	<u>????</u>
Comparators	7	Describe the interventions or strategies being compared and state why they were chosen.	<u>Pg 6, line 124-127</u>
Time horizon	8	State the time horizon(s) over which costs and consequences are being evaluated and say why appropriate.	<u>Pg 6, line 124-127</u>
Discount rate	9	Report the choice of discount rate(s) used for costs and outcomes and say why appropriate.	<u>Not applicable</u>
Choice of health outcomes	10	Describe what outcomes were used as the measure(s) of benefit in the evaluation and their relevance for the type of analysis performed.	<u>Pg 6, line 127-130</u>
Measurement of effectiveness	11a	<i>Single study-based estimates:</i> Describe fully the design features of the single effectiveness study and why the single study was a sufficient source of clinical effectiveness data.	<u>Not applicable</u>



			Not applicable
1		11b	<i>Synthesis-based estimates:</i> Describe fully the methods used for
2			identification of included studies and synthesis of clinical
3			effectiveness data.
4			Not applicable
5	Measurement and	12	If applicable, describe the population and methods used to
6	valuation of preference		elicit preferences for outcomes.
7	based outcomes		Not applicable
8	Estimating resources	13a	<i>Single study-based economic evaluation:</i> Describe approaches
9	and costs		used to estimate resource use associated with the alternative
10			interventions. Describe primary or secondary research methods
11			for valuing each resource item in terms of its unit cost.
12			Describe any adjustments made to approximate to opportunity
13			costs.
14			Pg 5, line 114-152
15		13b	<i>Model-based economic evaluation:</i> Describe approaches and
16			data sources used to estimate resource use associated with
17			model health states. Describe primary or secondary research
18			methods for valuing each resource item in terms of its unit
19			cost. Describe any adjustments made to approximate to
20			opportunity costs.
21			Pg 5, line 154-155
22	Currency, price date,	14	Report the dates of the estimated resource quantities and unit
23	and conversion		costs. Describe methods for adjusting estimated unit costs to
24			the year of reported costs if necessary. Describe methods for
25			converting costs into a common currency base and the
26			exchange rate.
27			Pg 7, line 157-158
28	Choice of model	15	Describe and give reasons for the specific type of decision-
29			analytical model used. Providing a figure to show model
30			structure is strongly recommended.
31			Pg 5-6, line 120-152
32	Assumptions	16	Describe all structural or other assumptions underpinning the
33			decision-analytical model.
34			Pg 6, line 143-158
35	Analytical methods	17	Describe all analytical methods supporting the evaluation. This
36			could include methods for dealing with skewed, missing, or
37			censored data; extrapolation methods; methods for pooling
38			data; approaches to validate or make adjustments (such as half
39			cycle corrections) to a model; and methods for handling
40			population heterogeneity and uncertainty.
41			Pg 6, line 127-138
42	Results		
43	Study parameters	18	Report the values, ranges, references, and, if used, probability
44			distributions for all parameters. Report reasons or sources for
45			distributions used to represent uncertainty where appropriate.
46			Providing a table to show the input values is strongly
47			recommended.
48			Pg 7, line 167-183
49	Incremental costs and	19	For each intervention, report mean values for the main
50	outcomes		categories of estimated costs and outcomes of interest, as well
51			as mean differences between the comparator groups. If
52			applicable, report incremental cost-effectiveness ratios.
53			Pg 7, line 167-183
54	Characterising	20a	<i>Single study-based economic evaluation:</i> Describe the effects
55	uncertainty		of sampling uncertainty for the estimated incremental cost and
56			incremental effectiveness parameters, together with the impact
57			Not applicable
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		of methodological assumptions (such as discount rate, study perspective).	<u>Not applicable</u>
			<u>Not applicable</u>
	20b	<i>Model-based economic evaluation:</i> Describe the effects on the results of uncertainty for all input parameters, and uncertainty related to the structure of the model and assumptions.	<u>Not applicable</u>
Characterising heterogeneity	21	If applicable, report differences in costs, outcomes, or cost-effectiveness that can be explained by variations between subgroups of patients with different baseline characteristics or other observed variability in effects that are not reducible by more information.	<u>Not applicable</u>
Discussion			
Study findings, limitations, generalisability, and current knowledge	22	Summarise key study findings and describe how they support the conclusions reached. Discuss limitations and the generalisability of the findings and how the findings fit with current knowledge.	<u>Pg 9-10, line 186-253</u>
Other			
Source of funding	23	Describe how the study was funded and the role of the funder in the identification, design, conduct, and reporting of the analysis. Describe other non-monetary sources of support.	<u>Pg 11, line 272</u>
Conflicts of interest	24	Describe any potential for conflict of interest of study contributors in accordance with journal policy. In the absence of a journal policy, we recommend authors comply with International Committee of Medical Journal Editors recommendations.	

For consistency, the CHEERS Statement checklist format is based on the format of the CONSORT statement checklist

The **ISPOR CHEERS Task Force Report** provides examples and further discussion of the 24-item CHEERS Checklist and the CHEERS Statement. It may be accessed via the *Value in Health* link or via the ISPOR Health Economic Evaluation Publication Guidelines – CHEERS: Good Reporting Practices webpage: <http://www.ispor.org/TaskForces/EconomicPubGuidelines.asp>

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Modelling the cost of community interventions to reduce child mortality in South Africa using the Lives Saved Tool (LiST)

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Modelling the cost of community interventions to reduce child mortality in South Africa using the Lives Saved Tool (LiST)

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Abstract

Objective To estimate the costs and impact on reducing child mortality, of scaling up interventions that can be delivered by community health workers at community level from a provider's perspective.

Setting In this study we used the Lives Saved Tool (LiST), a module in the spectrum software. Within the spectrum software, LiST interacts with other modules, the AIDS Impact Module (AIM), Family Planning Module (FamPlan) and Demography Projections Module (Dem Proj), to model the impact of more than 60 interventions that affect cause-specific mortality.

Participants Demography Projections Module Based on National South African Data

Interventions A total of 9 interventions namely; Breastfeeding promotion, Complementary feeding, Vitamin supplementation, Hand washing with soap, Hygienic disposal of children's stools, Oral rehydration solution, Oral antibiotics for the treatment of pneumonia, Therapeutic feeding for wasting, and Treatment for moderate malnutrition.

Primary and secondary outcome measures Reducing child mortality

Results A total of 9 interventions can prevent 8, 891 deaths by 2030. Hand washing with soap (21%) accounts for the highest number of deaths prevented, followed by therapeutic feeding (19%) and oral rehydration therapy (16%). The top 5 interventions account for 77% of all deaths prevented. At scale, an estimated cost of US\$169.5 million (US\$3 per capita) per year will be required in community health worker costs.

Conclusion The use of community health workers offers enormous opportunities for saving lives. These programmes require appropriate financial investments. Findings from this study show what can be achieved if concerted effort is channelled towards the identified set of life saving interventions.

Strengths and limitations of this study

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- 44 • The Lives Saved Tool (LiST) is a widely used robust priority setting tool that has been
- 45 extensively reviewed and used to influence policy in low and middle income countries.
- 46 • The model used in this analysis offers an alternative to measured impact of community
- 47 health interventions, which can be costly undertakings.
- 48 • One limitation of this analysis is that interventions for saving the lives of children are
- 49 included as standalone interventions and not packages of care, thus the overall impact is
- 50 potentially overestimated.
- 51 • While intervention costs are provided, this study is not a full economic evaluation, which
- 52 only considers costs of labour, drugs and supplies associated with the essential
- 53 interventions.

54

55 **Background**

56

57 More than 40,000 children under the age of five years die every year in South Africa from

58 preventable causes, mainly diarrhoea and pneumonia [1,2]. Progress has been made in the last

59 decade, with child and infant mortality reducing significantly. Under-five mortality reduced from 56

60 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2009 to 39/1,000 in 2014, and infant mortality from 39/1,000 (2009)

61 to 28/1,000 (2014) [3]. This progress has occurred at a time during which there has been rapid scale

62 up of prevention of mother to child transmission (PMTCT) of HIV and improvement in the coverage

63 of other essential child health interventions including immunisations and increased access to water

64 and sanitation. However, this has not been sufficient to reach the country's millennium

65 development goals of reducing infant and under-five mortality rates by two thirds by 2015.

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67 As the country looks to a new set of sustainable development goals beyond 2015, there is need to

68 focus on essential interventions that have been shown to be effective in improving child health.

69 Recent analyses in South Africa identified a set of priority interventions that can have an impact on

70 stillbirths [4], maternal, newborn and child mortality [5]. Interventions such as family planning can

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3 71 avert more than 7,000 newborn and child lives, at a cost of US\$7 per year per user of family planning
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5 72 [6]. Investing an additional US\$9 to US\$18 per capita in 13 interventions to prevent diarrhoea can
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7 73 save more than 3,000 additional child lives every year [7]. Scaling up these essential maternal and
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9 74 child health interventions will require concerted effort and a strengthening of the health system, a
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11 75 process which has already been initiated by the government.
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16 77 In 2011, South Africa initiated its primary healthcare (PHC) reengineering programme in a bid to
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18 78 improve health systems performance and access to health. PHC re-engineering is aimed at
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20 79 positioning PHC as the mainstay of the health sector in responding to the quadruple burden of
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22 80 disease (HIV/TB; maternal and child health; non-communicable burden of disease; and violence and
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24 81 injury). South Africa's approach to PHC reengineering relies heavily on PHC outreach teams which
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26 82 include professional nurses, health promotion practitioners and community health workers (CHWs).
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31 84 Global evidence has shown that CHWs can effectively deliver interventions in primary health care
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33 85 including nutrition, maternal and child health, malaria control, tuberculosis (TB) control, HIV/AIDS
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35 86 prevention and control, mental health and non-communicable disease [8-13]. A Cochrane review of
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37 87 CHW interventions identified 107 randomised controlled trials which showed promising benefits,
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39 88 compared to usual facility care in increasing immunisation uptake in children, improving
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41 89 breastfeeding rates until six months, reducing neonatal mortality and improving pulmonary TB care
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43 90 rates [14]. The review also reported that CHWs interventions reduce child morbidity and mortality;
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45 91 maternal mortality; and increase the likelihood of caregivers seeking care for children who are ill.
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50 93 There is a small but growing evidence base of cost effectiveness studies of CHW interventions in low
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52 94 and middle income countries [15,16]. More recently there is evidence of the cost-effectiveness of
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54 95 CHW interventions in reducing malaria and asthma [17], mortality of neonates and children [17],
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56 96 malnutrition [17], and increasing exclusive breastfeeding [18,19], and increasing uptake of home
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97 based HIV testing [20]. However, there is still a need to provide more information on the cost and
98 impact of community health worker interventions, in order to aid priority setting and decision
99 making for the improvement of child health.

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101 In this paper, we use the Lives Saved Tool (LiST), a widely used priority setting tool, to estimate the
102 costs of scaling up interventions that can be delivered by CHWs at community level [21]. LiST has
103 been previously used in South Africa to identify the essential interventions that can save the lives of
104 children, together with the costs of these interventions [5-7, 26, 27]. It has also been used in other
105 low and middle income countries to assess the cost-effectiveness of community health worker
106 programmes [15]. Our paper describes the methods used in LiST to estimate the cost of deploying
107 CHWs and the overall impact that the selected interventions can have on reducing child mortality.
108 This information is necessary for South Africa, as it pursues the goal of Universal Health Care.

109
110 **Methods**

111 This analysis used the Lives Saved Tool (LiST), a module in the Spectrum software, which models the
112 impact of increased coverage of health interventions on maternal, newborn and child mortality [21].
113 Within the Spectrum software, LiST interacts with other modules, the AIDS Impact Module (AIM),
114 Family Planning Module (FamPlan) and Demography Projections Module (DemProj), to model the
115 impact of more than 60 interventions that affect cause-specific mortality [22]. LiST is a deterministic
116 mathematical model that compares the effect of various interventions on population level risk
117 factors, as well as stillbirths and maternal, newborn and child deaths [21,23]. The primary model
118 inputs are coverage of interventions and the outputs are changes in risk factors (such as stunting
119 rates) and cause specific mortality. Interventions included in the model can have an impact on single
120 or multiple causes of death and risk factors, with outcomes changing based on the level of
121 intervention coverage. Increasing the level of coverage of one or more interventions can thus lead to
122 a reduction in associated risk factors or cause-specific mortality.

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5 124 Intervention impact on mortality can be direct or indirect (through the reduction of risk factors). The
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7 125 direct impact of each of these interventions is modelled by multiplying its effectiveness estimate
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9 126 with the level of coverage, assuming all other interventions are kept constant. For example, an
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11 127 intervention with an effect estimate of 30% can avert 30% of the associated cause-specific deaths if
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13 128 coverage for that intervention is 100%.

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18 130 The modelling methods used in LiST have been used in several studies [24,25]. In South Africa, LiST
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20 131 has been used to identify the potential cost and impact of scaling up interventions on stillbirths [4],
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22 132 diarrhoea [26] and maternal, newborn and child mortality [5,27]. In our model, we use LiST to model
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24 133 the impact of interventions to reduce child mortality and then estimate the resources required for
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26 134 the portion of interventions that are delivered at community level [28].

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31 136 Nine interventions (described in Table 1) available in LiST that can be delivered at community level,
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33 137 and have been shown to effectively impact child mortality are used in the model. The focus on these
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35 138 interventions was because they can be delivered by CHWs at community level. The baseline
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37 139 coverage of all interventions included in LiST was maintained, and only scaled up for the 9
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39 140 community interventions, from baseline levels (2015) to full coverage at 99% (2030). Increases in
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41 141 coverage were assumed to be gradual and interpolated over the 15 year period.

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47 143 The baseline mortality rates used were 41 deaths per 1,000 live births for under-five children and
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49 144 13/1,000 for neonates [29]. The causes of newborn and child mortality [30] are given in Figure 1.
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51 145 The relationship between the 9 interventions scaled up in the model and the causes of death are
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53 146 shown in Table 1. The interventions are mainly focused on diarrhoea.
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Table 2 shows the percent delivery of each intervention at different levels in the base and target years. Taking promotion of breastfeeding for example, the table shows that in the base year, the coverage of this intervention is 25% and will be scaled up to 99% in the target year 2030. In the base year, breastfeeding promotion is delivered 50% at community level and 25% each at outreach and clinic levels. While we assumed that overall intervention coverage for the 9 interventions increased, the level assigned to each delivery channel remained the same. Setting the percent delivery is essential to determining the resource requirements at the different levels. It is also important to note that LiST models the overall impact of each intervention, and intervention impact does not take into consideration the model of delivery (whether delivered at community or facility level).

Estimation of costs and resource requirements

Costs were modelled from a provider perspective, using the costing module in LiST. The module uses an ingredients approach to costing, based on four components: personnel and labour; drugs and supplies; other recurrent costs; and capital costs. In the analysis for costs of community health workers, the items included are personnel and labour and drugs and supplies. Staff remuneration is based on current salary structures of health workers in South Africa, with an allowance made for annual cost of living adjustments at 5.6% per annum [31]. The unit costs of drugs and supplies are based on international drug prices from UNICEF and the Management for Sciences Health International Drug Price Indicator [32,33].

The primary personnel input in LiST are staff time, which is then converted to annual staff costs. Thus, LiST cannot for example calculate the number of personnel required for a particular intervention, but can be used to estimate the effort required to scale up an intervention (in terms of staff time).

Costs were estimated in South African Rand (ZAR) and converted to United States Dollars (US\$), at an average exchange rate of US\$1 to ZAR13 in 2015. All costs were adjusted to 2015 using the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

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176 Results

The model estimates a total fertility rate of 2.4, approximately 1.4 million pregnancies and 1.2 million births in 2015. The projected number of pregnancies and births in 2030 reduces to 1.2 million and 1 million, respectively.

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181 Overall intervention impact on child mortality

Table 3 provides the estimated number of deaths at baseline in 2015 and after full scale in 2030. The number of deaths reduces from approximately 40,214 in 2015 to 30,004 in 2030. Thus a 10,210 deaths are prevented in this period, out of which a total of 8,322 deaths prevented are attributed to the 9 community interventions that were scaled up in this analysis (Table 4). Hand washing with soap (22%) accounts for the highest number of deaths prevented, followed by therapeutic feeding (21%) and ORS (17%). The top 5 interventions account for 82% of all deaths prevented.

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189 Estimations of resource requirements

The total costs of all the interventions used in the analysis (including costs of all delivery channels i.e. community, outreach and health facility) are estimated to be US\$74 million (US\$1 per capita) in 2015. This is expected to rise to US\$565 million (US\$10 per capita) if interventions are scaled up to 99% coverage in 2030. In comparison, the costs of the community component are US\$19.8 million (US\$0.37 per capita) in 2015 and US\$169.5 million in 2030. The difference in the total and community costs shows the impact that a higher cadre of staff would have in relation to costs. The required number of workers was calculated by converting the personnel time estimated in LiST.

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5 198 Considering only the baseline costs at community level, hygienic disposal of stools is estimated to
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7 199 have the highest cost of labour at US\$5.7million. Therapeutic feeding for wasting comes in second at
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9 200 US\$5.6 million and oral rehydration solution has the third highest cost of US\$2.6 million. When
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11 201 interventions are at scale in 2030, the highest costs are projected for treatment of moderate acute
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13 202 malnutrition (US\$54 million), hand washing with soap and disposal of stools (US\$37 million each)
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15 203 and therapeutic feeding for wasting (US\$37 million).
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20 205 Approximately 3.3 million hours of work per year at the community level are required at baseline,
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22 206 compared to 11.1 million hours when interventions are fully scaled up. Based on a full time
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24 207 equivalent working a 6 hour day for a full year, we the required community health workforce to
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26 208 deliver the interventions used in this model will be about 3,000 at baseline and 11,000 at full
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29 209 coverage.
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33 211 **Discussion**
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36 212 This analysis used the Lives Saved Tool (LiST), a widely used priority setting tool, to estimate the cost
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38 213 and impact of interventions delivered at community level to prevent child mortality. The results
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40 214 show that scaling up 9 interventions that are conducted at both community and facility level can
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42 215 prevent an additional 8,300 lives per year. The top 5 interventions: hand washing with soap,
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44 216 therapeutic feeding for wasting, ORS, oral antibiotics for pneumonia and appropriate
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46 217 complementary feeding, account for 82% of all additional deaths prevented i.e. implementing only
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48 218 these 5 interventions at scale can prevent an additional 6,800 child deaths per year.
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53 220 This is an important finding as it has implications for considerations when choosing the most
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55 221 effective interventions to meet the new sustainable development goals for child health. Considering
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57 222 that not all interventions can be fully implemented given budgetary constraints, focusing on the
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identified 5 most effective interventions can contribute to achieving the desired results. Other considerations such as cost implications have to be made when choosing which interventions to implement.

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In 2011, it was estimated that there were more than 72,000 community health workers in South Africa, delivering various interventions [34]. In our projection, we estimated that approximately 11,000 community health workers would be required to deliver the 9 interventions used in this analysis at scale. This could be an underestimate, and we have no basis for comparisons with other studies. Caution should be taken when considering our estimate, because it is based on a projected baseline level of coverage for the modelled interventions, level of effort required to deliver the interventions and an annual salary, all of which could be different in other models.

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The labour costs of community health workers have been provided in this analysis. We show that at scale, an estimated cost of US\$169.5 million (US\$3 per capita) per year will be required. The top 5 most effective interventions are also the most costly, probably because they are more personnel intense, with a lot of time spent on extensive demonstrations. Provision of oral antibiotics for example requires diagnosis, treatment and follow up. It is important to note though, that the overall cost of an intervention will be influenced by among other things, the level of coverage, with more effort required to scale up low coverage interventions.

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The costs provided in this analysis are likely an underestimate of the true costs of deploying community health workers, which have been shown to be substantial. Equipment costs have not been included, nor have the usually large administrative costs also been considered. Future research should look into providing the overall cost structure as this has important implications for how health workers are deployed and accounted for. Future analyses should take these costs into

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consideration, as it has been shown that they can contribute to the overall cost-effectiveness of interventions [35,36].

This analysis also had a limitation in that it did not consider the interventions included as part of a package of interventions that can be delivered by a single health worker. The interventions are standalone. While looking at the individual impact of interventions is useful and can help to understand the value of each intervention, this does not truly reflect the way most interventions are implemented in reality, as packages. It is therefore possible that we potentially overestimated the overall health impact of the interventions included in this analysis. Further, we also could have overestimated the costs, since savings tend to be higher when interventions are packaged than when they stand alone. However, other considerations should also be made on how packaged community health services would work and on whether a single health worker loaded with several different messages to deliver to a home will be as effective as one who is focused on one specific message, e.g. breastfeeding promotion.

The interventions included in this analysis have been shown to be effective in reducing child mortality. Extensive reviews of the literature were undertaken to gather information on intervention effectiveness by the Child Health Epidemiology Reference Group (CHERG) [37]. In this analysis, we have shown the potential impact that these interventions can have on reducing child mortality in South Africa. However, cognisance should be taken of the challenges that could be faced with deploying CHWs in the South African context. Health care in South Africa remains mainly facility based, and provided by professional health workers, while CHWs mainly facilitate health promotion. Therefore, an intervention such as case management of pneumonia, which requires some level of diagnostic ability as implemented in other settings [38,39], might not work for CHWs in South Africa. A lot of effort will have to be placed in training CHWs and redefining their roles. Such efforts would

incur costs that have not been considered in this study. The usefulness of our study is that it puts forward evidence that can be used to argue for the expansion of the roles of South African CHWs.

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We focused on only 9 interventions that can be delivered at community level, by maintaining constant coverage of other child health interventions. This may not be very realistic since in the real world, coverage of the other interventions is likely to increase, resulting in a lower burden of under-five mortality by 2030. It is therefore possible that we have overestimated the total number of deaths prevented.

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Furthermore, the LiST model assumes that the health system interventions are delivered at uniformly high quality. This is unlikely given drug shortages, health care worker attitudes and institutional challenges. Significantly more resources are probably required to address such issues.

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286 Conclusion

South Africa has made significant progress with regard to reducing child mortality although this was not sufficient to meet the MDG deadline in 2015. As the new sustainable development goals materialise, and South Africa heads towards Universal Health Care, understanding what the best package is and how it can be delivered is essential. In order to do this, there is need to consider essential and effective interventions that will have the most impact on saving the lives of South African children. In this paper, we have provided information on the cost and impact of 9 effective interventions that can be delivered at community level. We show that implementing just 5 of these interventions can prevent as many as 6,800 additional deaths of children every year. The community health worker costs of implementing the 9 interventions do not seem to be substantial, at R41 per capita. This seems to be well within the scope and affordability of the South African health budget.

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Contributorship statement LN and KH conceived the study and participated in the design. LN and LC conducted the analysis of the analysis of the data. All authors participated in interpretation of data, drafting and critical revision of the manuscript, and approved the final version.

Competing interests None declared

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Data sharing statement The model data can be made available to interested researchers

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414 Table 1: Description of interventions

Intervention	Description of the intervention	Cause of death affected	Effect estimate
1. Breastfeeding promotion	Breastfeeding promotion can be either one-on-one or group meetings. It is assumed that children 1-5 months of age who are exclusively breast fed do not need breastfeeding promotion.		
2. Complementary feeding	This intervention only benefits children 6-24 months of age who are living on more than a dollar a day; This can be delivered in the home, community or clinic, by health professionals or health volunteers. It includes the assumption that breast feeding should be continued for children 6-24 months of age, (but does not affect breast feeding rates). The intervention includes education on the proper foods to prepare as well as appropriate hygiene for food preparation.		
3. Vitamin A supplementation	This intervention covers the percent of children 6-59 months receiving full coverage with Vitamin A. Full coverage of Vitamin A supplementation is considered to be 2 doses of Vitamin A in the past year. It is assumed that all children in a country with Vitamin A deficiency are in need of Vitamin A for prevention.	Diarrhoea	47%
4. Hand washing with soap	Appropriate hand washing is defined as washing hands with soap, ash or other materials and using adequate water, after handling faeces and before preparing food.	Diarrhoea	48%
5. Hygienic disposal of children's stools	Percent of children's stools that are disposed of safely and contained. Stools are considered to be contained if: 1) the child always uses a toilet/latrine, 2) the faeces are thrown in the toilet or latrine, or 3) the faeces are buried in the yard.	Diarrhoea	20%
6. Oral rehydration solution (ORS)	Percent of children with diarrhoea given ORS from sachets. This includes sachets or pre-mixed solutions of ORS.	Diarrhoea	93%
7. Oral antibiotics for the treatment of pneumonia	Proportion of children 1-59 months with suspected pneumonia or ARI treated with antibiotics	Pneumonia	70%
8. Therapeutic feeding for wasting	Percent of wasted children receiving therapeutic feeding. Therapeutic feeding is outpatient treatment for severely wasted children (<-3Z) including supplementation with food (such as PlumpyNut) and maternal education. Therapeutic feeding is only applied to the percent of children severely wasted. It shifts children from the severely wasted category to moderately (-3to-2Z) and mildly (-2to-1Z) wasted categories.	Other causes	20%
9. Treatment for moderate malnutrition	Percent of moderately wasted children (-3to-2Z) receiving outpatient treatment including supplementation with food (such as PlumpyNut) and maternal education. Treatment for MAM shifts children from the moderately wasted category into the mildly wasted category (-2to-1Z).	Other causes	20%

Table 2: Percent intervention coverage and delivery at different levels

	Coverage		Delivery channels					
			Community		Outreach		Clinic	
Interventions	Baseline year	Target year	Baseline year	Target year	Baseline year	Target year	Baseline year	Target year
Promotion of breastfeeding	25	99	50	50	25	25	25	25
Complementary feeding--education only	10	99	50	50	0	0	50	50
Vitamin A supplementation	50	99	50	50	50	50	0	0
Hand washing with soap	17	99	100	100	0	0	0	0
Hygienic disposal of children's stools	40.5	99	100	100	0	0	0	0
ORS - oral rehydration solution	50	99	50	50	0	0	50	50
Oral antibiotics : case management of pneumonia in children	73.2	99	50	50	0	0	50	50
Therapeutic feeding - for severe wasting	45	99	20	20	0	0	80	80
Treatment for moderate acute malnutrition	10	99	20	20	0	0	80	80

Table 3: Total number of deaths (all interventions)

Age-group	Baseline	Scale up to 99%
	2015	2030
<1 month	13356	12435
1-59 months	26857	17569
Total (0-59 months)	40214	30004

Table 4: Additional deaths prevented by 9 community interventions, 2030

Intervention	Number of deaths prevented	% deaths prevented
Hand washing with soap	1828	22%
Therapeutic feeding - for severe wasting	1730	21%
ORS - oral rehydration solution	1426	17%
Oral antibiotics : case management of pneumonia in children	1025	12%
Appropriate complementary feeding	822	10%
Hygienic disposal of children's stools	543	7%
Vitamin A supplementation	394	5%
Promotion of breastfeeding	319	4%
Treatment for moderate acute malnutrition	235	3%
Total	8322	100%

Note: This table provides the additional number of deaths prevented attributable to the 9 community interventions scaled up to full coverage

Table 5: Costs and resource requirements (US\$)

Interventions	2015		2030	
	Total	Community	Total	Community
Promotion of breastfeeding	1,123,509	561,754	10,038,173	5,019,086
Complementary feeding (education only)	1,149,336	122,720	25,679,246	2,741,903
Vitamin A supplementation	549,421	71,866	2,394,368	280,552
Hand washing with soap	2,375,468	2,375,468	37,526,223	37,526,223
Hygienic disposal of children's stools	5,659,204	5,659,204	37,526,223	37,526,223
Oral rehydration solution	19,270,311	2,575,185	34,500,213	4,086,458
Oral antibiotics : case management of pneumonia in children	3,298,578	378,909	10,045,584	1,106,962
Therapeutic feeding - for severe wasting	28,213,620	5,621,596	135,840,638	27,062,171
Treatment for moderate acute malnutrition	12,549,660	2,500,542	271,778,014	54,143,689
Total	74,189,107	19,867,246	565,328,681	169,493,266
Personnel time (hours)				
Community health workers		3,339,796		11,140,869

Total costs include costs of all delivery channels (community, outreach and health facility).

US\$=United States Dollars

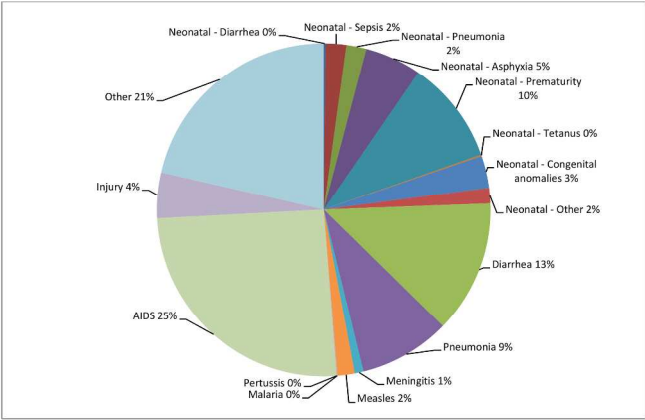


Figure 1: Causes of death in children under-five years, used in LiST (adapted from MRC, 2010).

210x297mm (300 x 300 DPI)

CHEERS Checklist

Items to include when reporting economic evaluations of health interventions

The **ISPOR CHEERS Task Force Report**, *Consolidated Health Economic Evaluation Reporting Standards (CHEERS)—Explanation and Elaboration: A Report of the ISPOR Health Economic Evaluations Publication Guidelines Good Reporting Practices Task Force*, provides examples and further discussion of the 24-item CHEERS Checklist and the CHEERS Statement. It may be accessed via the *Value in Health* or via the ISPOR Health Economic Evaluation Publication Guidelines – CHEERS: Good Reporting Practices webpage: <http://www.ispor.org/TaskForces/EconomicPubGuidelines.asp>

Section/item	Item No	Recommendation	Reported on page No/line No
Title and abstract			
Title	1	Identify the study as an economic evaluation or use more specific terms such as “cost-effectiveness analysis”, and describe the interventions compared.	<u>Pg 1, line 1-2</u>
Abstract	2	Provide a structured summary of objectives, perspective, setting, methods (including study design and inputs), results (including base case and uncertainty analyses), and conclusions.	<u>Pg 2, line 21-40</u>
Introduction			
Background and objectives	3	Provide an explicit statement of the broader context for the study. Present the study question and its relevance for health policy or practice decisions.	<u>Pg 4-5, line 85-100</u>
Methods			
Target population and subgroups	4	Describe characteristics of the base case population and subgroups analysed, including why they were chosen.	<u>Pg 6, line 126-130</u>
Setting and location	5	State relevant aspects of the system(s) in which the decision(s) need(s) to be made.	<u>Pg 6, line 132-138</u>
Study perspective	6	Describe the perspective of the study and relate this to the costs being evaluated.	<u>????</u>
Comparators	7	Describe the interventions or strategies being compared and state why they were chosen.	<u>Pg 6, line 124-127</u>
Time horizon	8	State the time horizon(s) over which costs and consequences are being evaluated and say why appropriate.	<u>Pg 6, line 124-127</u>
Discount rate	9	Report the choice of discount rate(s) used for costs and outcomes and say why appropriate.	<u>Not applicable</u>
Choice of health outcomes	10	Describe what outcomes were used as the measure(s) of benefit in the evaluation and their relevance for the type of analysis performed.	<u>Pg 6, line 127-130</u>
Measurement of effectiveness	11a	<i>Single study-based estimates:</i> Describe fully the design features of the single effectiveness study and why the single study was a sufficient source of clinical effectiveness data.	<u>Not applicable</u>



			Not applicable
1		11b	<i>Synthesis-based estimates:</i> Describe fully the methods used for
2			identification of included studies and synthesis of clinical
3			effectiveness data.
4			Not applicable
5	Measurement and	12	If applicable, describe the population and methods used to
6	valuation of preference		elicit preferences for outcomes.
7	based outcomes		Not applicable
8	Estimating resources	13a	<i>Single study-based economic evaluation:</i> Describe approaches
9	and costs		used to estimate resource use associated with the alternative
10			interventions. Describe primary or secondary research methods
11			for valuing each resource item in terms of its unit cost.
12			Describe any adjustments made to approximate to opportunity
13			costs.
14			Pg 5, line 114-152
15		13b	<i>Model-based economic evaluation:</i> Describe approaches and
16			data sources used to estimate resource use associated with
17			model health states. Describe primary or secondary research
18			methods for valuing each resource item in terms of its unit
19			cost. Describe any adjustments made to approximate to
20			opportunity costs.
21			Pg 5, line 154-155
22	Currency, price date,	14	Report the dates of the estimated resource quantities and unit
23	and conversion		costs. Describe methods for adjusting estimated unit costs to
24			the year of reported costs if necessary. Describe methods for
25			converting costs into a common currency base and the
26			exchange rate.
27			Pg 7, line 157-158
28	Choice of model	15	Describe and give reasons for the specific type of decision-
29			analytical model used. Providing a figure to show model
30			structure is strongly recommended.
31			Pg 5-6, line 120-152
32	Assumptions	16	Describe all structural or other assumptions underpinning the
33			decision-analytical model.
34			Pg 6, line 143-158
35	Analytical methods	17	Describe all analytical methods supporting the evaluation. This
36			could include methods for dealing with skewed, missing, or
37			censored data; extrapolation methods; methods for pooling
38			data; approaches to validate or make adjustments (such as half
39			cycle corrections) to a model; and methods for handling
40			population heterogeneity and uncertainty.
41			Pg 6, line 127-138
42	Results		
43	Study parameters	18	Report the values, ranges, references, and, if used, probability
44			distributions for all parameters. Report reasons or sources for
45			distributions used to represent uncertainty where appropriate.
46			Providing a table to show the input values is strongly
47			recommended.
48			Pg 7, line 167-183
49	Incremental costs and	19	For each intervention, report mean values for the main
50	outcomes		categories of estimated costs and outcomes of interest, as well
51			as mean differences between the comparator groups. If
52			applicable, report incremental cost-effectiveness ratios.
53			Pg 7, line 167-183
54	Characterising	20a	<i>Single study-based economic evaluation:</i> Describe the effects
55	uncertainty		of sampling uncertainty for the estimated incremental cost and
56			incremental effectiveness parameters, together with the impact
57			Not applicable
58			
59			
60			

		of methodological assumptions (such as discount rate, study perspective).	<u>Not applicable</u>
			<u>Not applicable</u>
	20b	<i>Model-based economic evaluation:</i> Describe the effects on the results of uncertainty for all input parameters, and uncertainty related to the structure of the model and assumptions.	<u>Not applicable</u>
Characterising heterogeneity	21	If applicable, report differences in costs, outcomes, or cost-effectiveness that can be explained by variations between subgroups of patients with different baseline characteristics or other observed variability in effects that are not reducible by more information.	<u>Not applicable</u>
Discussion			
Study findings, limitations, generalisability, and current knowledge	22	Summarise key study findings and describe how they support the conclusions reached. Discuss limitations and the generalisability of the findings and how the findings fit with current knowledge.	<u>Pg 9-10, line 186-253</u>
Other			
Source of funding	23	Describe how the study was funded and the role of the funder in the identification, design, conduct, and reporting of the analysis. Describe other non-monetary sources of support.	<u>Pg 11, line 272</u>
Conflicts of interest	24	Describe any potential for conflict of interest of study contributors in accordance with journal policy. In the absence of a journal policy, we recommend authors comply with International Committee of Medical Journal Editors recommendations.	

For consistency, the CHEERS Statement checklist format is based on the format of the CONSORT statement checklist

The **ISPOR CHEERS Task Force Report** provides examples and further discussion of the 24-item CHEERS Checklist and the CHEERS Statement. It may be accessed via the *Value in Health* link or via the ISPOR Health Economic Evaluation Publication Guidelines – CHEERS: Good Reporting Practices webpage: <http://www.ispor.org/TaskForces/EconomicPubGuidelines.asp>

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